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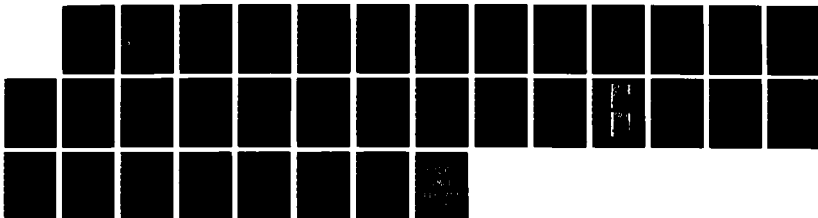
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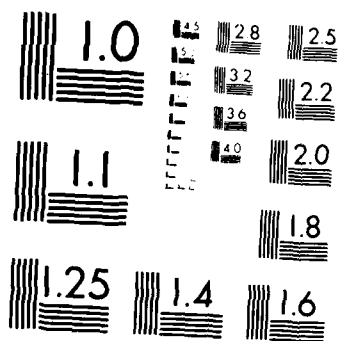
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NRL Memorandum Report 6119

# High-Current Density, High-Brightness Electron Beams from Large-Area Lanthanum Hexaboride Cathodes\*

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*Advanced Beam Technologies Branch  
Plasma Physics Division*

AD-A187 700



December 13, 1987

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## HIGH-CURRENT DENSITY, HIGH-BRIGHTNESS ELECTRON BEAMS FROM LARGE-AREA LANTHANUM HEXABORIDE CATHODES\*

### I. INTRODUCTION

There is a growing demand for cathodes that are capable of generating high current density, high quality electron beam pulses with high repetition rate. Such cathodes have application in several high power, short wavelength devices that intend to produce C.W. coherent radiation, including gyrotrons<sup>1,2</sup> and Free Electron Lasers<sup>2,3</sup> (FELs).

In the past, several free electron laser experiments used cold electron cathodes, such as plasma cathodes, graphite brush cathodes, or velvet cathodes.<sup>4-6</sup> However, these sources are not suitable for repetitively pulsed devices. Conventional thermionic dispenser-type cathodes are capable of producing high frequency, repetitively pulsed beams, but are limited to 1-4 A/cm<sup>2</sup>. More recent work with chemically depositing osmium coatings have resulted in a large increase in emission (40-50 A/cm<sup>2</sup>).<sup>7</sup> However, this important development is limited to application in devices where ultra-high vacuum is maintained.

Lanthanum hexaboride (LaB<sub>6</sub>) is of interest as a thermionic cathode because of its ability to produce high current density electron beam pulses (10-50 A/cm<sup>2</sup>) with high repetition rate, while requiring only modest vacuum on the order of 10<sup>-5</sup> Torr.<sup>8-10</sup> For example, Gallagher reported that LaB<sub>6</sub> cathodes at a temperature of 1400°C are resistant to poisoning for air pressure as high as 5 X 10<sup>-5</sup> Torr. He also reported that resistance to poisoning increases with increasing temperature.

Most of the previous work with  $\text{LaB}_6$  has been limited to cathode cross sections  $< 1$  mm diameter. High-power free electron lasers require large currents. Therefore an experimental study of large  $\text{LaB}_6$  cathodes and their emission properties is needed.

A technique to uniformly heat large  $\text{LaB}_6$  cathodes to  $1600^\circ - 1800^\circ\text{C}$ , required for high current density emission, is first presented. This is followed by a brief description of the diagnostics used in this experiment. Cathode temperature profiles are shown which demonstrate the ability to achieve a uniform temperature distribution over a large area. Current measurements as a function of voltage are also presented. Results from emittance measurements are then described which permit a determination of normalized beam brightness. This result is compared with analytical calculations of emittance due to cathode temperature and surface roughness.

## II. DESCRIPTION OF EXPERIMENT

### A. Cathode heating.

The cathodes used are 5 cm diameter, 0.6 cm thick planar discs formed by hot pressing of  $\text{LaB}_6$  powder. These sintered discs are commercially available at densities 70% to 90% of the solid  $\text{LaB}_6$  density of  $4.72 \text{ g/cm}^3$ . Special tooling is required to machine this material, which has ceramic-like hardness, in order to mount the cathodes in a support structure. These cathodes must be heated to very high temperatures in order to obtain high current density electron emission. This is due to the material's high work function.

The thermionic limited electron current density is determined by the Richardson-Dushman equation:

$$J(\text{A/cm}^2) = AT^2 e^{-(11600\phi/T)}, \quad (1)$$

where  $A$  and  $\phi$  are constants and  $T$  is the cathode temperature in degrees Kelvin. Lafferty<sup>8</sup> has reported the values  $29 \text{ A/cm}^2 - ^\circ\text{K}^2$  and  $2.66 \text{ eV}$  for  $A$  and  $\phi$  respectively. Field assisted thermionic emission is determined by

$$J(\text{A/cm}^2) = AT_e^2 \left[ (139 \epsilon^{1/2} / T) - (11600 \phi / T) \right], \quad (2)$$

where  $\epsilon$  is the electric field at the surface of the cathode in  $\text{kV/cm}$ . Equation (2) is known as the Schottky equation. Both Eqs. (1) and (2) are plotted in Fig. (1) as a function of cathode temperature in degrees Celsius. This figure shows that in order to obtain current density emission of  $10$  to  $50 \text{ A/cm}^2$  the cathode surface must be heated between  $1600 - 1800^\circ\text{C}$ . For uniform current density emission, the entire surface of the cathode should be heated uniformly.

In the present experiment a uniform temperature profile was achieved over the cathode's emitting surface with the help of MITAS, a computer thermal analysis code developed by Martin Marietta Corporation. MITAS includes radiation and conduction as well as the geometrical details of the cathode assembly and the anode. The code results were useful in the selection of materials and fabrication techniques for the different parts of the cathode heater assembly. The results also provide the heat loss profile of the cathode. Figure 2 shows the cathode temperature profile for a specific applied power density distribution. It is apparent that heat is lost predominantly from the edge of the cathode due to thermal radiation. Therefore, the cathode heater assembly was designed to preferentially heat the cathode toward its edges to achieve a uniform temperature distribution.

A schematic of the cathode heater assembly is shown in Figure 3. The cathode is mounted in a graphite hollow disc. Graphite is chosen because it is known not to react with  $\text{LaB}_6$ .<sup>8</sup> The graphite disc is supported by a  $0.1 \text{ mm}$  thick tantalum cylindrical shell, which also serves as a radial heat shield. Two additional radial heat shields are included in the design. The intermediate heat shield supports a thin annular graphite hollow disc.



which is positioned flush with the cathode surface to serve as an electric field shaper. In addition, four tantalum plates are used as axial heat shields. Directly behind the cathode, a 0.5 mm diameter tungsten filament is woven into a circular disc of boron nitride, which serves as a filament support. After experimenting with different tungsten alloys (pure W and 1% Th-W), we have selected a 3% Re-W alloy that is less brittle and easier to wind than the other alloys tested.

The  $\text{LaB}_6$  cathode is radiantly warmed from room temperature to  $1000^\circ\text{C}$  by passing 0 to 16 A through the filament. Additional heater power is provided by electron bombardment to raise the cathode temperature from  $1000^\circ\text{C}$  to the desired operating value ( $\sim 1600^\circ$  to  $1800^\circ\text{C}$ ). Typically the filament is held at -700 V potential with respect to the cathode. Electrons emitted from the hot filament are accelerated toward the cathode where their energy is deposited as heat. After an initial "burn-in" period, the boron-nitride filament support base becomes coated with a purple colored film, which is  $\text{LaB}_6$  evaporated from the cathode.<sup>10</sup> This film enhances the electron bombardment current, which finally saturates at an upper limit. This limit is the same as the space-charge limited current for electrons emitted from the entire filament support base surface for the specific filament base to cathode distance. The bombardment current limit is typically 3 to 4 A. During operation the pressure was between  $10^{-6}$  to  $10^{-5}$  Torr.

The space-charge limited bombardment current was very stable. As a result, it was easy to hold the cathode temperature constant in time to  $\pm 10^\circ\text{C}$  during operation.

The space-charge limited bombardment current density<sup>11</sup> is given by

$$J(\text{A/cm}^2) = 2.336 \times 10^{-6} V^{3/2}/D^2, \quad (3)$$

where  $V$  is the filament-cathode potential in Volts and  $D$  is the distance in cm between the cathode and filament support base. The heat deposition

profile is controlled by making  $D$  larger in the center than near the edge of the cathode. As a consequence, the edge of the cathode receives more current and therefore more power than the cathode center, resulting in a nearly uniform cathode temperature profile. Variation of  $D$  is accomplished by machining the filament base to a depth determined with the aid of the MITAS code. In the experiment,  $D$  at the center of the cathode was approximately 50% larger (0.9 cm) than at the edge (0.6 cm).

## B. Diagnostics

A flat planar anode is positioned parallel with the cathode. This is shown schematically in Fig. 4. The anode is mounted to an X, Y, Z manipulator, allowing one to vary the anode-cathode gap and the two transverse coordinates of the anode (X, Y) during the experiment. The flat anode surface is made of 1 mm thick tantalum.

The temperature of the cathode is measured using a Land Instruments infrared thermometer, which detects thermal radiation from 0.8 to 1.1  $\mu\text{m}$ . The resolution of the instrument is  $\pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ . Temperature readings are corrected for spectral emissivity, using the value of 0.82, and for absorption by the glass viewport.<sup>12, 13</sup>

A 5 mm diameter hole has been drilled in the anode at 1.3 cm from the anode center. This hole allows the temperature to be measured by focusing the infrared thermometer on the cathode surface. Cathode temperature profiles at different fixed X positions are made by synchronously scanning the anode and infrared thermometer in the Y direction.

With the cathode at the desired operating temperature, a beam is generated by applying a negative 1 to 10 kV pulse to the cathode with respect to the grounded anode. The pulse width is 3 to 6  $\mu\text{s}$  long, measured

from pulse initiation to the end of the voltage flat top, and is continuously variable. Voltage pulses are created by discharging a capacitor through the cathode-anode load. A Tektronix voltage probe measures the voltage amplitude, which is consistent with the known potential that the capacitor is charged to. Cathode emission current is measured with a Rogowski coil.

Emittance is measured by employing a 50  $\mu\text{m}$  diameter pinhole drilled in a 130  $\mu\text{m}$  thick sheet of tantalum foil. This foil is spot welded over another 5 mm diameter hole in the anode tantalum plate 1.3 cm off center, opposite from the temperature measuring hole. The setup is shown in Fig. 4. A beamlet emerging from the pinhole travels a drift length  $L$  of 15 cm and strikes a phosphor coated stainless steel plate. The normal of the phosphor plate surface is tilted  $45^\circ$  with respect to the beam axis of symmetry so that the beamlet image can be photographed. The beamlet image is much larger than the pinhole size. The angular divergence of the beamlet,  $\theta$ , is then  $\Delta Y/L$ , where  $\Delta Y$  is the half width of the beamlet image in the Y-direction. Photographs of the beamlet are made at different cathode positions by scanning the anode in the Y direction. Spatial dimensions of the beamlet photographs are measured by raster scanning the photographs with an optical densitometer. The full width projected on the Y-axis,  $2\Delta Y$ , is determined for each beamlet and from this an average value of  $\Delta Y$  for all the beamlets is computed.  $\Delta Y$  is experimentally observed to be substantially invariant of both number of photographic shots and pulse width. Typically, 20 shots are superimposed to get a clear photographic image of each beamlet. An average value,  $\bar{\theta}$ , of  $\theta$  is determined. The normalized emittance<sup>14, 15</sup>,  $\epsilon_n$ , is then evaluated from

$$\epsilon_n = \beta \gamma R_c \bar{\theta}, \quad (4)$$

where  $R_c$  is the radius of the cathode emitting surface and  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  are the usual relativistic factors. The pinhole size and 15 cm drift distance have been carefully chosen so that space charge expansion of the beamlet can be neglected. Divergence due to electrostatic deflection of the pinhole is also negligible. The normalized brightness of the beam is determined from

$$B_n = I_c / (\pi \epsilon_n)^2, \quad (5)$$

where  $I_c$  is the cathode emission current.

### III. RESULTS

#### A. Cathode temperature measurements

As discussed in section II, temperature-limited current density increases rapidly with temperature. This makes high temperature operation desirable. The highest cathode temperature measured in our experiment is 1781°C. Limitations to achieving higher temperatures include electron bombardment power supply current limits and, to a lesser extent, power radiated from the cathode heater assembly, which heats the vacuum chamber walls and causes excessive outgassing. Also, for temperatures much above 1800°C evaporation from the cathode surface becomes excessive.<sup>8</sup> The cathode is routinely operated at temperatures up to 1700°C.

Figure 5 illustrates the D.C. power levels required to heat the 5 cm diameter cathode to a given temperature. Up to 1000°C the cathode is heated by radiant power due to the filament current. Above 1000°C both electron bombardment and radiant power contribute to the cathode heating. The total power shown in Fig. 5 is the sum of bombardment power and radiant power. As temperature increases above 1000°C the supplied bombardment power increases steadily and becomes larger than the radiant power above 1400°C. Upwards of 1600°C the filament radiant power is only a small

fraction of the bombardment power. Often the filament current is reduced at this point to increase the filament's lifetime.

Figure 6 shows an example of a measured temperature profile. The cathode is scanned in the Y direction for different X positions. Both X and Y are measured from the center of the cathode. Data, represented by the discrete open circles, are connected by straight line segments. The cathode temperature is uniform to  $\pm 20^\circ\text{C}$ . Additional modification of the filament support base to concentrate more heat on the cathode edge may improve uniformity even further.

#### B. Cathode current measurements

Cathode currents are measured for different cathode-anode potentials and gap sizes. Currents as high as 200 A are routinely measured, corresponding to an average current density of  $12\text{ A/cm}^2$  over the  $16\text{ cm}^2$  cathode emitting area.

Figure 7 shows a plot of measured cathode current as a function of cathode voltage for two different anode-cathode gaps, D. The measured data are represented by either open circles or open squares. Data in this figure are for a cathode temperature of  $1600^\circ\text{C}$ . Also shown in the graph are solid lines of constant perveance. These solid lines are calculated from Child's law, Eq. (3), for  $D = 0.3, 0.4$ , and  $0.5\text{ cm}$ , using an emitting area of  $16\text{ cm}^2$ . It is clear from Fig. 7 that the data closely follow the corresponding constant perveance lines within the experimental uncertainty. This indicates that the beam is space-charge limited. The primary experimental uncertainty is the size of the cathode-anode gap. In general, more current is observed than that predicted by the field-assisted thermionic emission. Specifically, for  $D = 0.4\text{ cm}$ ,  $V = 9.0\text{ kV}$  and  $T = 1600^\circ\text{C}$ , Eq. (2) gives 170 A, which is approximately 85% of the measured

current. This may be due to ions knocked off the anode by the primary electron beam. These ions would be accelerated toward the cathode where they in turn produce secondary electrons which add to the primary beam current. Another possibility is that the values of work function,  $\phi$ , and Richardson constant,  $A$ , are significantly different than Lafferty's values of 2.66 eV and  $29 \text{ A/cm}^2\text{-}^\circ\text{K}^2$  used in determining the graph in Fig. 1. For example, Ahmed reported  $\phi = 2.4 \text{ eV}$  and  $A = 40 \text{ A/cm}^2\text{-}^\circ\text{K}^2$ .<sup>10</sup> This can also account for the difference between the observed current and the computed temperature limited current.

### C. Beam brightness measurements

Brightness is a useful measure of beam quality for FEL experiments.<sup>16</sup> Brightness, as previously discussed, is experimentally determined by measuring the normalized beam emittance and cathode emission current. Then brightness is readily computed using Eq. (5).

Results reported in the paper are for a cathode temperature of  $1560^\circ\text{C}$ . Higher cathode temperatures cause excess background light on the phosphor plate. Beam energy and current are 10 keV and 85 A respectively. The cathode-anode gap is measured to be 0.5 cm. During these measurements the pinhole was located, in successive runs, at  $Y = 0.0, 0.5$  and  $1.0 \text{ cm}$  from the cathode midplane and was displaced from the vertical axis that passes through the cathode center by 1.3 cm. At each  $Y$  position  $\theta$  is determined. From these values of  $\theta$ , the average angular divergence is computed to be  $\bar{\theta} = 11 \pm 2 \text{ mrad}$ . Then, from Eqs. (4) and (5),  $\epsilon_n = 5.0 \pm 1 \text{ cm-mrad}$  and the normalized brightness is  $B_n = 3.4 \pm 1 \times 10^5 \text{ A/cm}^2\text{-rad}^2$ .

Effects that may contribute to the observed emittance include the cathode temperature, non uniform emission and surface roughness. The

cathode temperature imposes a lower bound on the emittance of a beam emitted from a thermionic cathode. For a uniform temperature and emission profile, normalized RMS emittance due to temperature is given approximately by  $\epsilon_T = \beta \gamma R_c (2kT/eV)^{1/2}$ , where  $k$  is Boltzmann's constant,  $T$  is the absolute temperature, and  $eV$  is the beam energy at the anode.<sup>14</sup> From this equation,  $\epsilon_T = 2.6$  cm-mrad for a 10 keV beam of electrons emitted from a 5 cm diameter cathode operated at 1560°C.

Contribution to the emittance from non uniform emission at the cathode is not probably very important, because the transit time of the electrons is substantially shorter than the electron plasma period, at least for the temperature limited case. Figure 8 shows electron microscope photographs of  $LaB_6$  cathodes before use and after 28 hours of use at the operating temperature of 1550°C or higher. It is apparent that these cathodes are initially rather smooth and have only slowly varying surface irregularities. During operation the cathode surface becomes much rougher. Protrusions and craters appear scattered over the cathode surface. To what extent the roughness is caused by cathode heating alone and to what extent the roughness is caused by electron beam operation is presently uncertain. One possible mechanism is that ions knocked off the anode surface by the incident electron beam are subsequently accelerated back to the cathode surface and their impact creates the observed roughness features. The height of the cathode protrusions vary between 0 and 4  $\mu m$ , with a median value of 2  $\mu m$ . Y.Y. Lau has derived analytic equations which enable one to calculate the emittance that is due to surface roughness as a function of height,  $h$ , and width,  $w$ , of the protrusions.<sup>17</sup> For our experimental parameters,  $V = 10$  kV and  $D = 0.5$  cm,  $\epsilon_n$  varies only about  $\pm 10\%$  for  $w/h$  varying over the range from 0 to 1. The median value of  $\epsilon_n$ .

for  $h = 2 \mu\text{m}$  and  $w/h$  between 0 and 1, is then 1.9 cm-mrad for space-charge limited emission and 6.3 cm-mrad for temperature-limited emission. The experimental value,  $\epsilon_n = 5.0 \pm 1$  cm-mrad, is measured for the transitional region between space charge and temperature limited emission. The roughness contribution to  $\epsilon_n$ , which falls between 1.9 cm-mrad and 6.3 cm-mrad is then consistent with our measured value.

#### IV. CONCLUSIONS

This paper reports on the generation of high current density, high brightness, long duration electron beam pulses from large area  $\text{LaB}_6$  cathodes. These measurements have been made between pressure  $10^{-6}$  to  $10^{-5}$  Torr, i.e., under substantially less demanding vacuum conditions than that required by conventional dispenser type cathodes.

Our results indicate that  $\text{LaB}_6$  cathodes have substantial potential in the generation of coherent radiation in repetitively pulsed devices or in the generation of long pulse duration radiation. Their resistance to poisoning make them more attractive than other thermionic cathodes but their high temperature requires special care in the design of the gun and the selection of its components.

#### ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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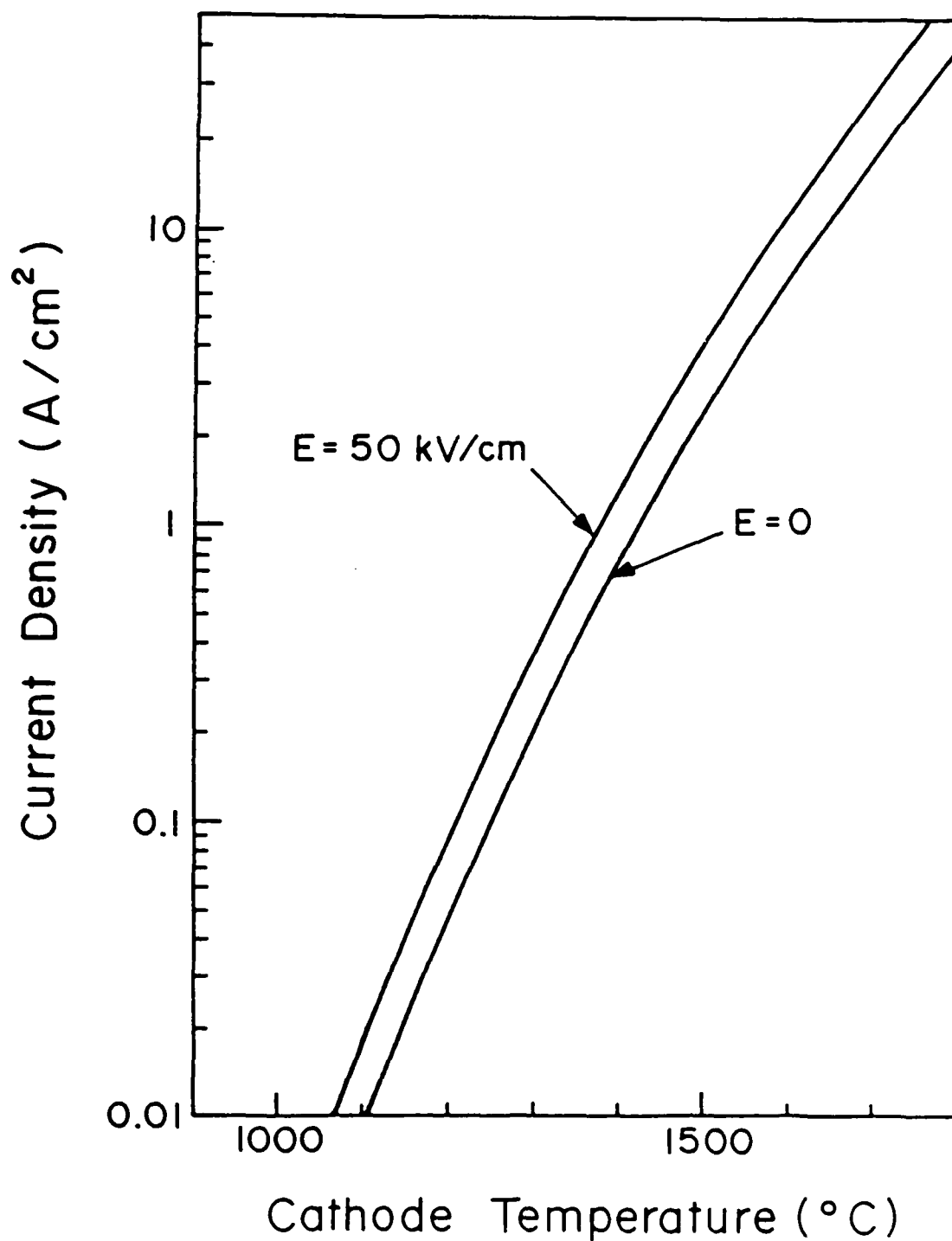


Fig. 1 — Temperature limited current density calculated for zero electric field and for 50 kV/cm at the cathode surface.

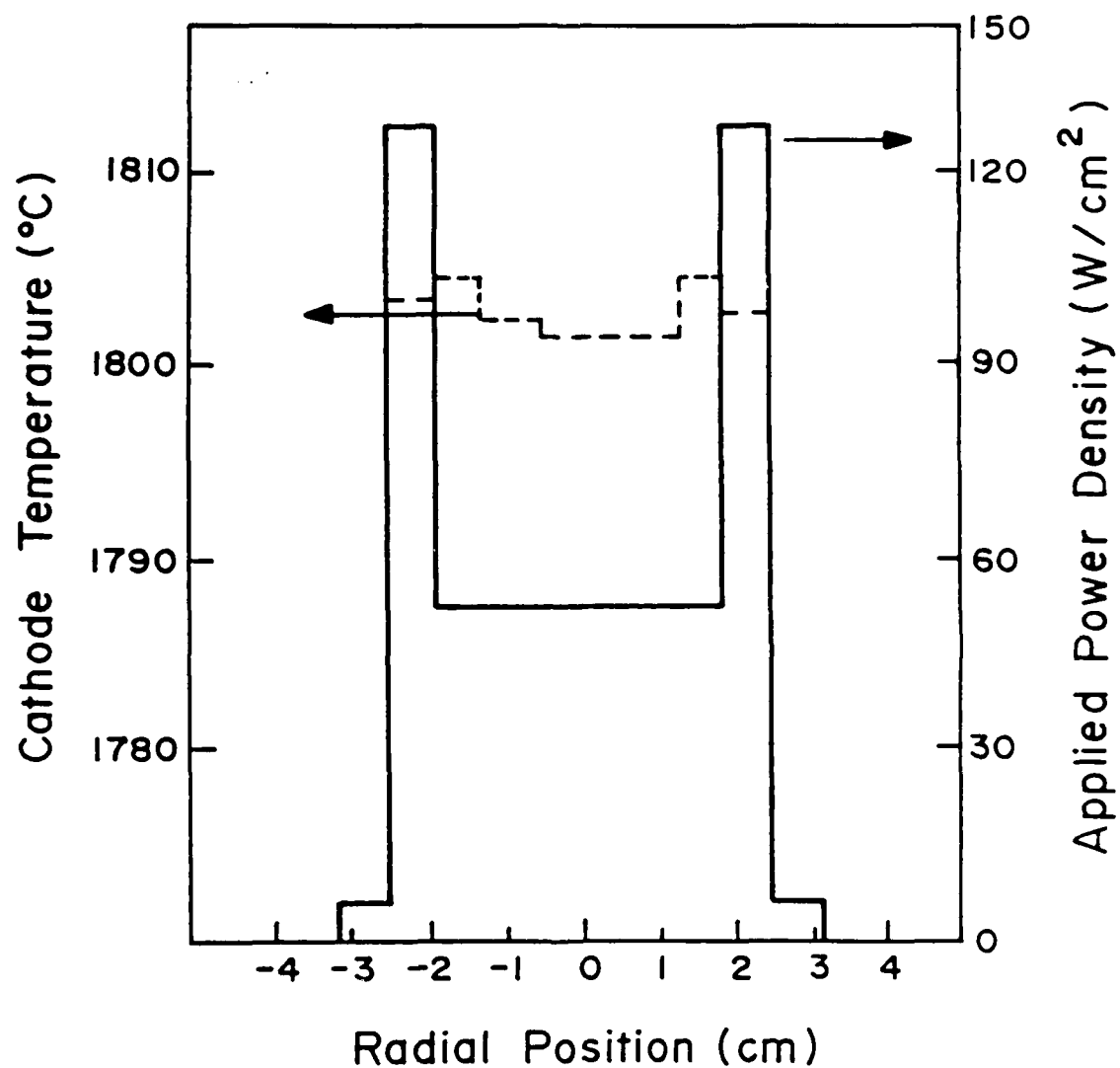


Fig. 2 — Heat loss profile, represented by the solid curve, for a  $\text{LaB}_6$  cathode heated to  $1800^\circ\text{C}$ . The corresponding temperature profile is represented by the dashed curve.

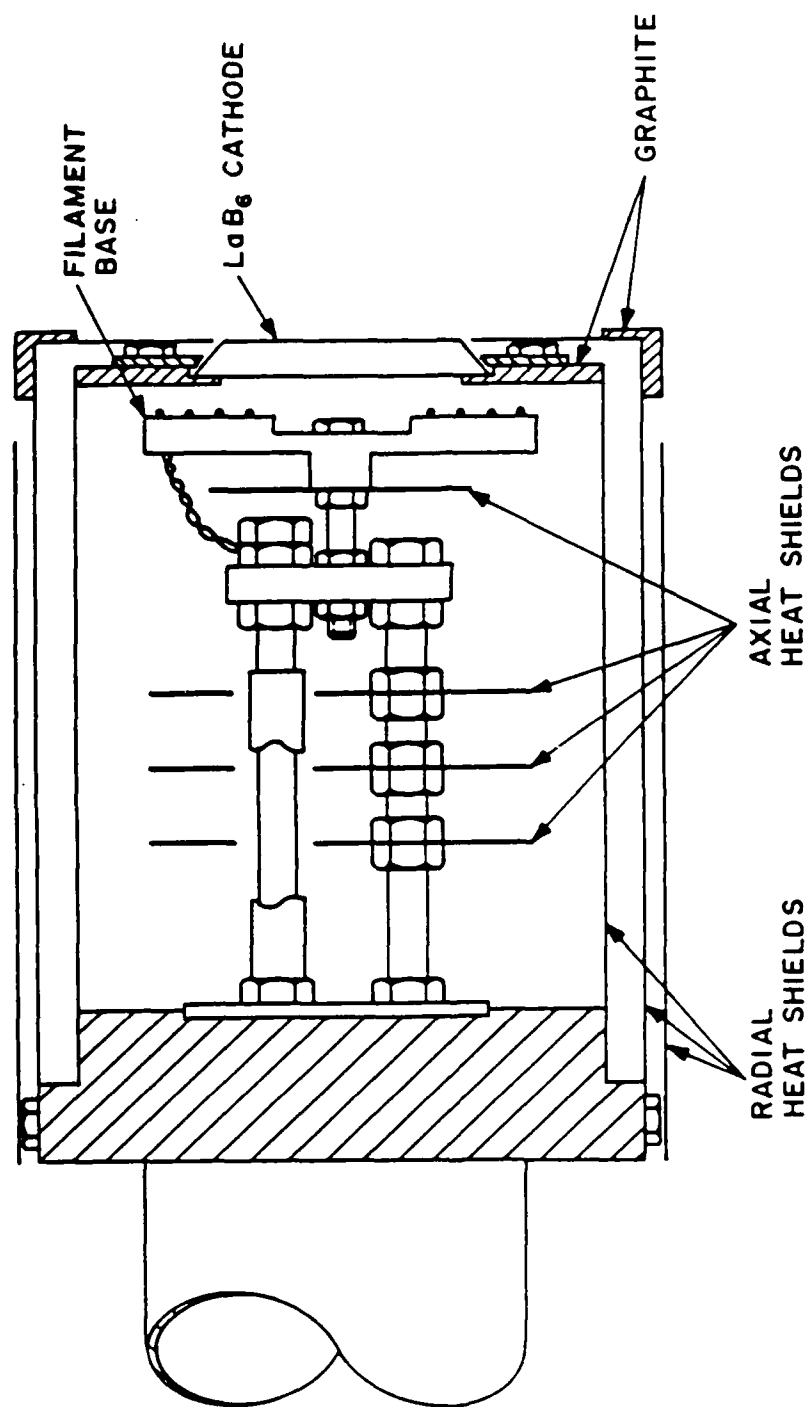


Fig. 3 — Schematic of the cathode heater assembly.

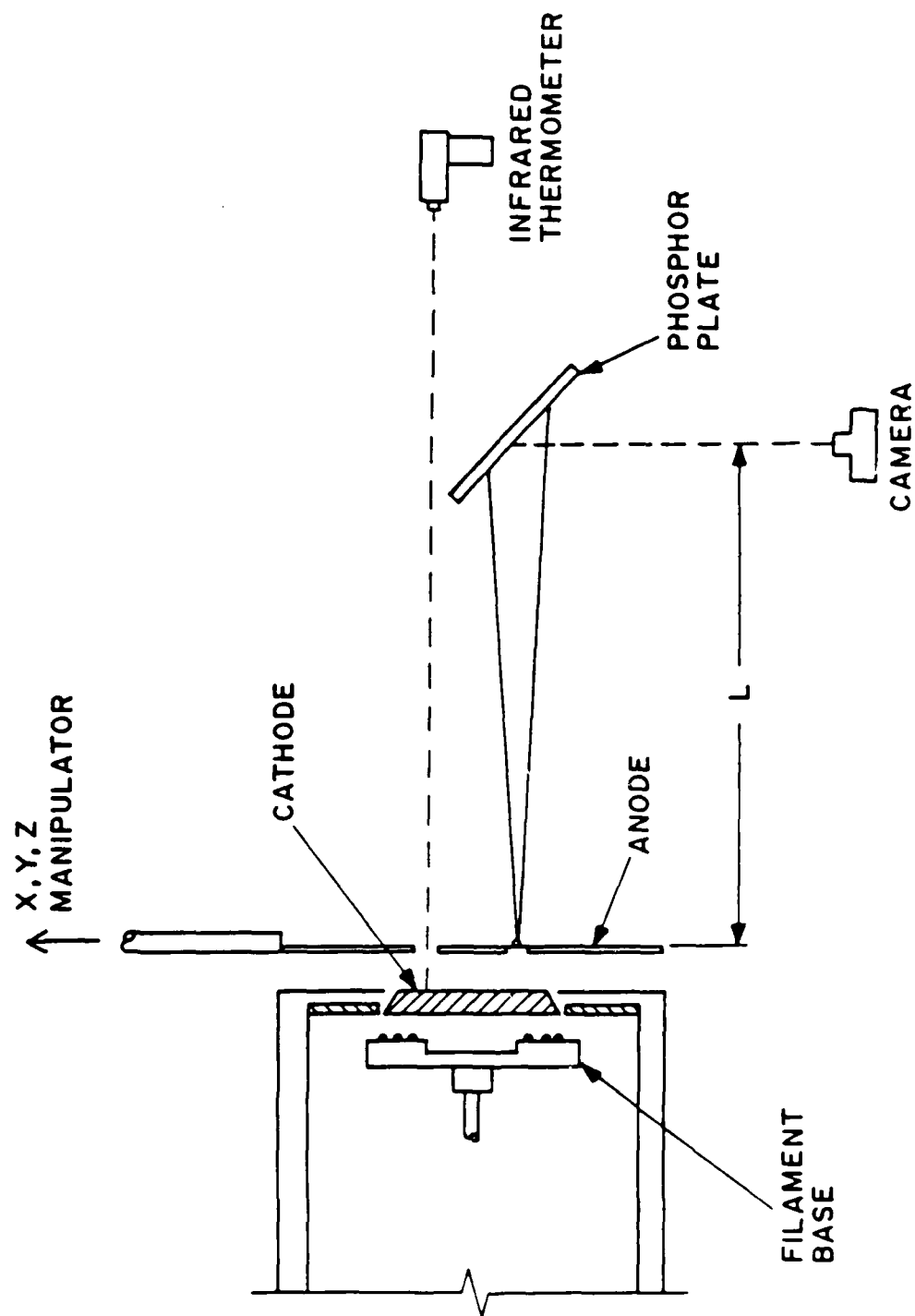


Fig. 4 — Schematic of temperature and emittance measurement diagnostics.

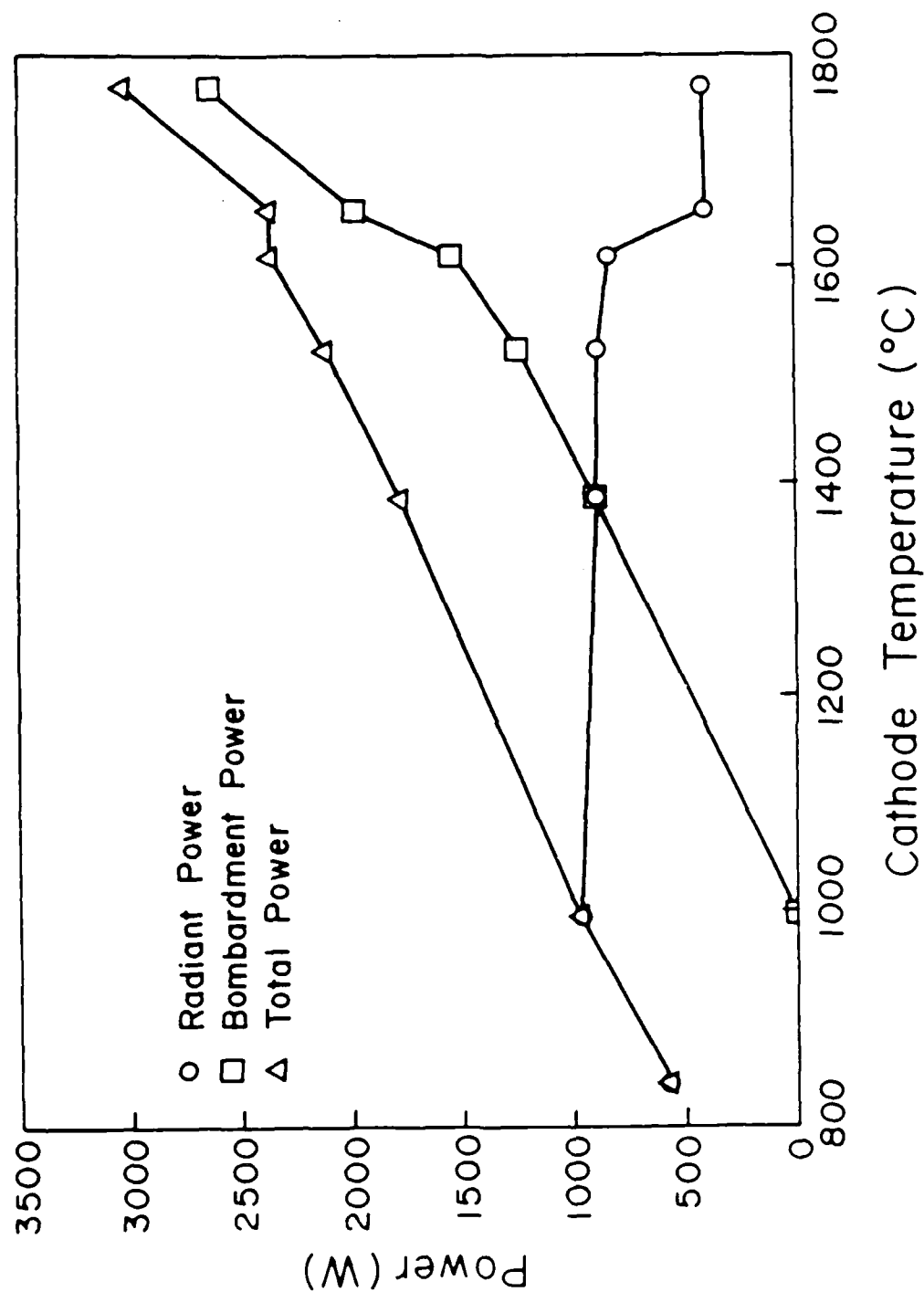


Fig. 5 — Measured power levels required to heat a cathode to a given temperature at a fixed reference point,  $X = 1.3$  cm, measured from the cathode center. Data, represented by the discrete symbols, are connected by straight line segments.

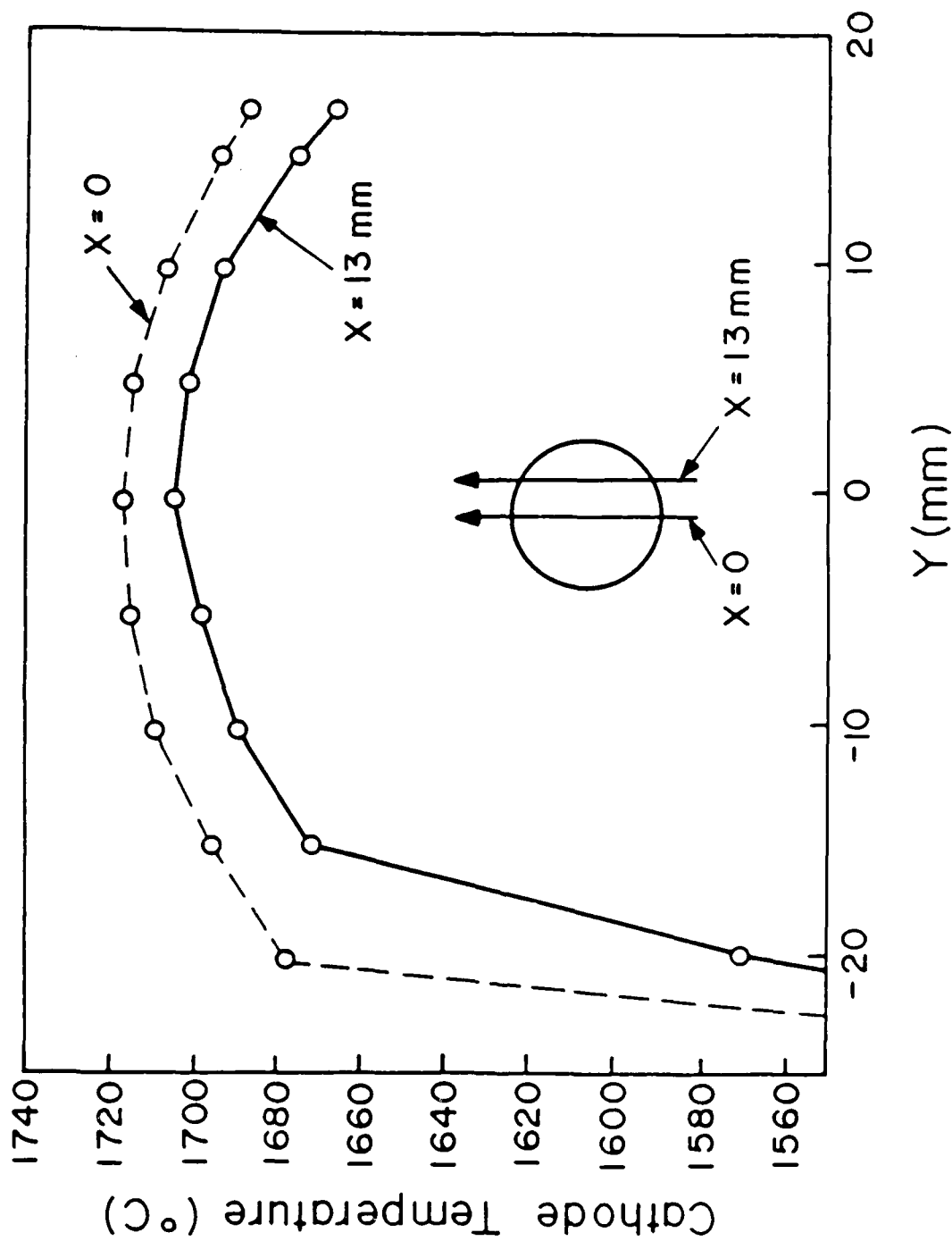


Fig 6 — Measured cathode temperature profiles as a function of Y for X fixed at 0 mm and 13 mm. Data, represented by the discrete symbols, are connected by straight line segments.

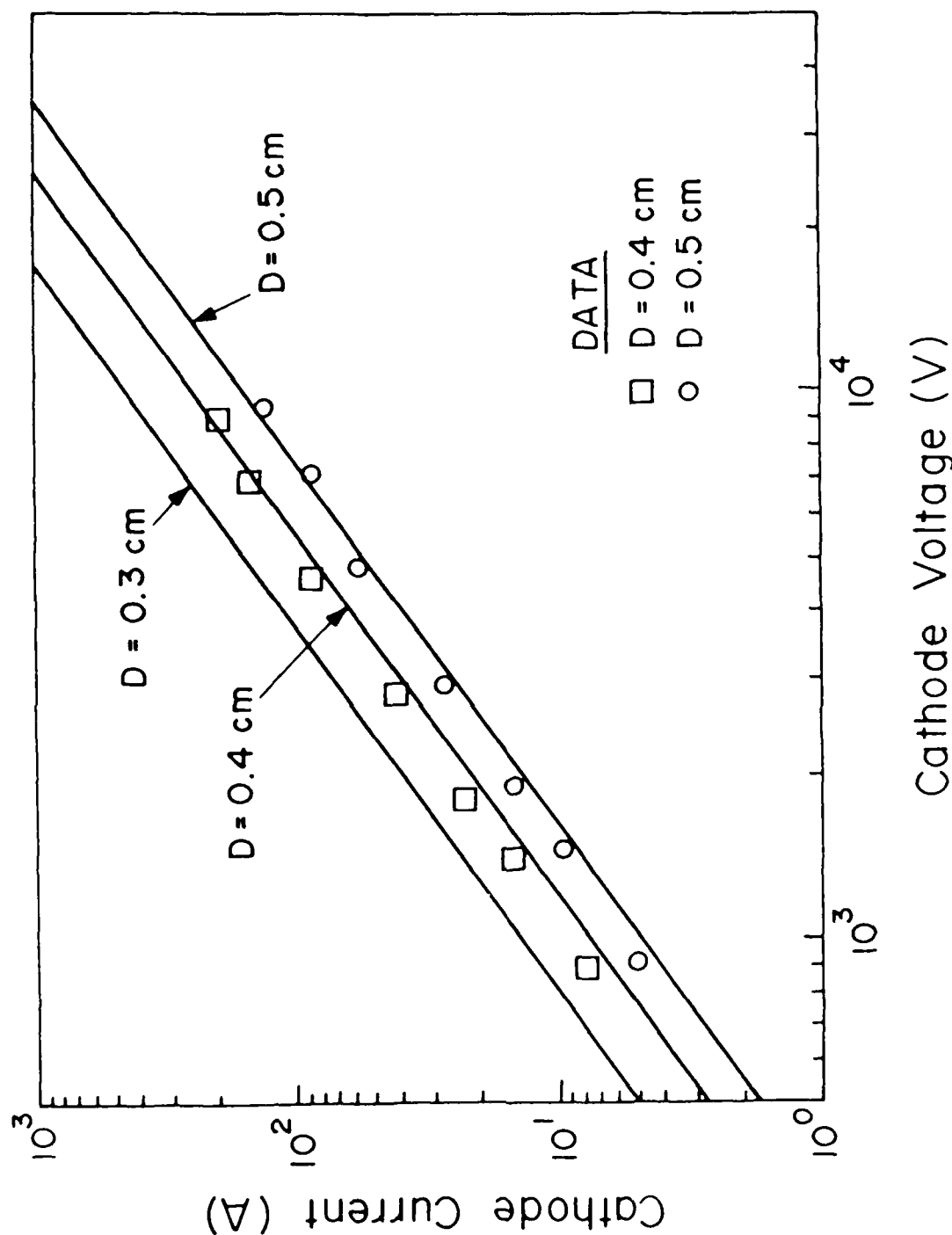


Fig. 7 — Measured value of cathode current as a function of voltage for a 1600°C cathode with cathode-anode gaps at 0.4 cm and 0.5 cm. Data are represented by the discrete symbols. Also shown are straight lines of constant perveance for cathode-anode gaps of 0.3 cm, 0.4 cm, and 0.5 cm.



BEFORE OPERATION



28 HOURS AT  
OPERATING TEMPERATURE



Fig. 8 — Electron microscope photographs of LaB<sub>6</sub> cathodes. On the left is an unused cathode and on the right is a cathode held at operating temperature for 28 hours.

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